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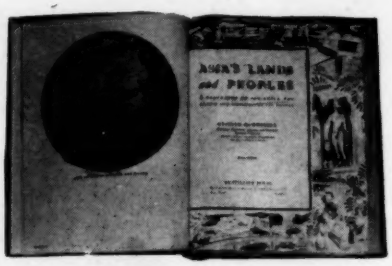

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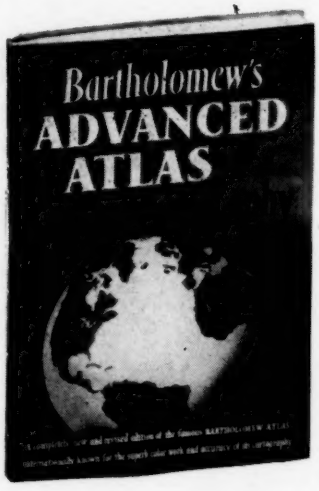

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VOLUME LI APRIL, 1952 NUMBER 4

A SURVEY OF THE ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF THE CRITIC OR SUPERVISOR OF STUDENT TEACHING IN THE FIELD OF GEOGRAPHY

To: University and College Administrators, Deans of Colleges of Education, Principals of Laboratory Schools and Directors of Teacher Training in State Teachers Colleges, State Colleges and Normal Schools.

From: The Committee on Standards of Certification of the National Council of Geography Teachers.

OUTLINE

I. FOREWORD
1. The importance and responsibilities of the supervisor of student teaching.
2. The academic and professional training required in supervisory work.
3. The importance of geography as a subject matter field in our modern society.
II. THE SURVEY
1. History, purpose and objectives of the survey.
2. The importance and need of the survey.
3. The questionnaire and specific data sought.
III. SOURCE OF DATA USED IN THE SURVEY
IV. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS OF THE SURVEY
1. Type of school making reports.
2. Grade level of instruction of supervisors.
3. Teaching geographic concepts, understandings and skills in various grade levels.
4. Geography as related to social studies.
5. Relationships between instructors in geography in college departments and supervisors of student teaching in laboratory schools.
6. Academic and professional training of the critic or supervisor in the field of geography.
7. Geography courses taken by supervisors in their undergraduate and graduate training.
8. Suggested minimum academic requirements for supervisors in the field of geography.
V. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS
VI. CO-OPERATION—A REQUISITE IN RESEARCH

FOREWORD

No one on the staff of our teacher training institutions needs to have such thoro knowledge in so many and varied fields as the

supervisor[1] of student teaching. Her responsibilities are important, for it is under the guidance of the supervisor that one most frequently witnesses the metamorphosis of the student into a teacher, the conversion of the inchoate man and woman into a capable competent teacher. Among her many duties as she proceeds with the task are:

1. The initiation of the student teacher into everyday school routine and classroom management.
2. The direction of the student teacher's attention to the practical application of the principles of child growth and development.
3. The creation of satisfactory teacher-pupil relationships.
4. The guidance of the student teacher in producing within the schoolroom the proper social environment in which good teaching thrives.
5. The aiding of the student teacher in developing those techniques and skills in the selection and presentation of subject matter at a particular grade level, whereby teaching becomes effective.
6. The promotion in both student-teacher and student-taught those principles of democracy which will not only function in the child-world, but which will carry over into adult society.

Each of these duties requires experience, wisdom, understanding, and preparation in many areas of knowledge, child psychology, sociology, administration, supervision, guidance, counselling, classroom management, along with the mastery of concepts, understandings and skills inherent in subject matter fields.

One of the subject matter fields, important today as never before, is the field of geography. At all levels of instruction the concepts which the study of geography has to contribute to an understanding of modern social, economic, and political problems in one's own immediate environment, in the nation, and at the international level, can not be overlooked. To do so would be to deny the student an insight into city, state, and world affairs with which he will be forced to deal in his adult life. Schools of the present day cannot afford to graduate students who do not have the geographic insights and skills necessary to deal with current problems. This fact is coming to be recognized more and more by school administrators, supervisors, and classroom teachers. Because of this development the question might well be asked: Are supervisors of student teachers adequately prepared to aid student teachers in developing those techniques and skills necessary in the selection

[1] The terms "critic or supervisor" are used interchangeably and refer to the individual who directs the practice or "cadet" teacher as he makes out his lesson plans and actually supervises the student or cadet teacher.

and preparation of geographic understandings and concepts to be presented at various grade levels?

THE SURVEY

In 1949 the National Council of Geography Teachers appointed a Committee on Standards of Certification to discover the competency of supervisors to deal with the development of geographic understandings and concepts. This committee has directed its efforts during the past two years to a survey of the academic and professional training of the supervisors of student teachers, who have the responsibility of developing geographic concepts and understandings. This survey set out to discover the answer to such questions as: What has been the preparation of the supervisor in the field of geography? To what degree has her academic training prepared her to think geographically? Has she been well grounded in the concepts, understandings and skills necessary as tools in the process of thinking about social, economic and political affairs? What specific courses should be set up as minimum requirements? These are among the many questions the committee raised as it began its study.

At this point it may very well be asked why such a survey is important. Two reasons, the committee believes, justify the survey. In the first place, most college instructors are fully aware of the fact that the student teacher, as he begins his teaching, is most inadequately prepared in the subject matter of geography.[2] This limited and fragmentary knowledge of the average college student was highlighted recently by the *New York Times* Geography Survey, which indicated that "less than 5 per cent of our college students enroll in even one geography course," altho 77 per cent of our colleges offer geography courses. In some of our teacher training institutions students can graduate without being required to take a course in geography. It is evident, therefore, from these findings that the task of preparing the well trained teacher for elementary and secondary schools rests heavily, not only on the college instructor, but on the supervisor of the student teacher. She must help the student select and present findings in a field of study in which he is ill prepared. Needless to add, the supervisor must, therefore, be well prepared in this particular field.

[2] Professional Paper No. 6 and Professional Paper No. 7, prepared by the Committee on Standards of Certification, were published in 1943 and 1946 by the National Council of Geography Teachers.

In the second place, administrators, educators, and deans appear to be in full agreement that a knowledge of geography is essential in the training of young people for world citizenship. Thus, student teachers must be prepared to handle modern geographic concepts at both the elementary and secondary levels. Of all fields of learning supervisors cannot afford to be ignorant of the concepts of geography. Consequently, it is important to discover to what extent these builders of future teachers are capable of handling this very important assignment.

To secure the information needed, the committee prepared a questionnaire asking for specific data on the following points:

1. The type of school in which the supervisor worked, State or City Teachers Colleges or Colleges of Education in State Universities.
2. The level of instruction of the supervisor.
3. The inclusion of the teaching of geographic concepts, understandings and skills in the curricula.
4. The grade placement of the development of these geographic tools, techniques and skills.
5. The nature of the class in which the concepts, understandings and skills are developed, geography, social studies or as incidental learnings in the general education program.
6. The relation between the instructor in geography in college departments and supervisors in laboratory schools.
7. The subject matter fields which the supervisor used as major and minor fields of study at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.
8. The specific courses in geography included in the undergraduate and graduate training of the supervisor.
9. A list of academic courses in the field of geography proposed and recommended as minimum requirements in the training of teachers who supervise the teaching of geography in various grade levels.

Sources of Data

A letter asking for co-operation in the survey, thus outlined, and copies of the questionnaire were addressed to Deans of Colleges of Education in all State Universities and to Principals of Laboratory Schools of Normal Schools, State Teachers Colleges or State Colleges as many of our teacher training institutions are now designated. A stamped addressed envelope was enclosed.

The schools selected for the survey were those listed in the Educational Directory for Higher Education, Part 3, published by the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Schools eliminated from the survey were denominational colleges, professional, technological and private schools and junior colleges. A total of 214 schools were selected for the survey. Every state was represented.

Enclosed in the envelopes sent out were approximately 1000

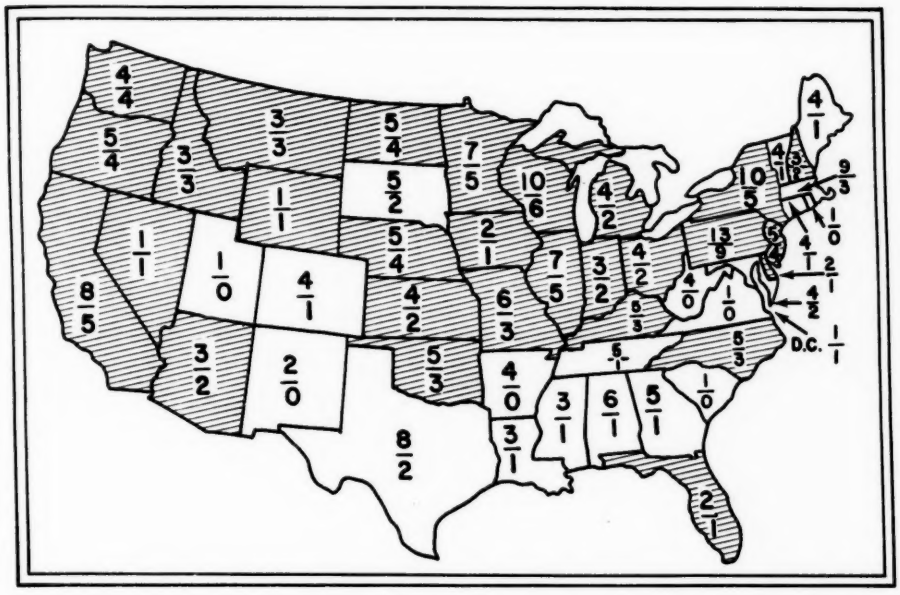

FIG. 1. Academic and professional preparation of supervisors of student teaching in the field of geography (Survey 1949-51). The numerator is the number of schools receiving questionnaires. The denominator is the number of replies received. The shaded areas indicate states from which better than 50 per cent returns were received.

questionnaire sheets, one for each supervisor in grades 4 to 12. Only four questionnaires were included when it was evident that teachers were trained chiefly for the secondary schools. Naturally, the committee did not expect a 100 per cent response.

Many schools returned the questionnaires with a letter stating that geography was not included in their curricula, consequently they had no supervisor; others stated they had supervisors in the field of social studies but none in geography. Some just returned the questionnaires, unanswered and with no comments. Other schools ignored completely the correspondence. Many of the returned questionnaires had to be discarded for various reasons. At the final count it appeared that 252 were usable and were selected as a basis for the survey. At the outset, the percentage of returns may appear to be small but it was the opinion of the committee that the number was sufficient to give an adequate picture of the situation and a larger number would not alter the findings materially.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

On the accompanying map the numerator of the fraction represents the number of schools receiving the questionnaire, while the

denominator is the number of schools reporting. The shaded areas indicate the states from which better than 50 per cent returns were received. The map affords an interesting geographic study.

For the sake of the record it might be stated that the largest number of returns came from State Teachers Colleges. While this fact is not surprising or particularly significant as far as the real problem of the survey is concerned, nevertheless it bears out the fact that the burden of training teachers of geography for our schools is being carried by State Teachers Colleges.

TABLE I. TYPES OF SCHOOLS MAKING REPORTS

State Teachers Colleges	220
Colleges of Education in State Universities	28
City Training Colleges	4
	252

Moreover, as a further item of interest, the grade level of instruction of the supervisor is here given. By breaking the level of instruction into four groups, Lower (grades 1-3), Intermediate (grades 4-6), Junior high school (grades 7-9), and Senior high school (grades 10-12) it was possible to obtain the grade placement of the supervisors contributing to the report. The results are summarized in Table II. It will be noted that in some cases the teacher supervises at one level only and in others at one or more grade levels.

TABLE II. GRADE LEVEL OF INSTRUCTION OF SUPERVISOR

1. Intermediate grades	100
2. Junior high school	47
3. Junior, Senior high school	29
4. Lower grades	21
5. Lower, Intermediate, Junior high school	16
6. Lower, Intermediate grades	14
7. Lower, Intermediate, Junior and Senior high schools	7
8. Senior high school	6
9. Intermediate grades, Junior high school	6
10. No answers	6
	252

No attempt is being made to interpret the table except to suggest that in the case of the teacher working in one grade only it is quite likely she supervises all subject-matter courses in that grade, including geography. On the other hand, where the teacher works at several grade levels she will most likely supervise the one subject of geography. It is encouraging to note the number of supervisors in the field of geography in the junior and senior high schools.

In answer to the question: "Are geographic concepts, under-

TABLE III. TEACHING GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS, UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS AT VARIOUS GRADE LEVELS

a. Intermediate grades	68
b. Junior high school	42
c. Lower, Intermediate, Junior high school	22
d. Intermediate, Junior high school	22
e. Junior and Senior high school	20
f. Lower and Intermediate grades	20
g. All grades	14
h. Lower grades	12
i. Senior high school	7
j. Intermediate, Junior and Senior high school	1
k. No answer	24
	252

standings, and skills developed in the grade you supervise?'' it is quite clear that attempts are made to develop these basic learnings. From the tabulation of the results it was discovered that 235 schools or 98 per cent of the total answered emphatically in the affirmative. Only four indicated they were not.

It is, indeed, encouraging, that these basic principles and skills are receiving attention in so large a proportion of our schools. To be sure, we have no way of knowing how much time is being given to their development, how thoro is the instruction, or what use is being made of these geographic tools in developing geographic thinking. Nevertheless it is heartening to find that they are not being neglected. If the critic or supervisor of student teaching is trained to think geographically, we can be confident that good teaching will be effected.

In Table III the grade placement of the teaching of geographic concepts, understandings and skills is given. A glance at the table will carry the proof of the fact, long recognized, that most of the teaching of geography is accomplished in the intermediate and junior high schools, and that such knowledge is all but neglected in the senior high schools.

If, however, as the results indicate, these concepts, understandings, and skills are really effectively taught at the intermediate and junior high school levels, with no breaks in the continuity of study, by the time the student reaches the senior high school he should be equipped with those techniques and basic truths, and should be able to use them in interpreting world, economic and political problems, providing, of course, he be directed in his thinking by a teacher trained in geography. A more ideal situation will be reached when students in our secondary schools have an oppor-

tunity to have geographic instruction thru the four years of their high school course.[3]

An attempt to discover whether the concepts, understandings and skills are taught as a part of the subject-matter of geography, as a part of the integrated social studies or as just incidental learnings in the general education processes, is summarized in Table IV.

Table IV. Geography as Related to the Social Studies

a. Integrated social studies	112
b. Classes in geography and Integrated social studies	41
c. Class in geography	39
d. Classes in geography; Integrated social studies; General education	28
e. Integrated social studies and General education	17
f. General education program	3
g. Classes in geography and General education program	2
h. No answer	10
	252

It is difficult to evaluate properly this table without more specific knowledge on a number of points. If, as the table clearly indicates, most of the geographic tools are taught as a part of the integrated social studies, the question naturally arises as to the ability of the teacher to think geographically. Is she trained in modern concepts, or does geography for her consist of locating a few places on a map and occasionally speaking of the weather and climate or the terrain?

If geography, as one of the social studies, as indeed it is, receives specific attention as a distinct point of view, then the results are encouraging. If it is considered as "merged" or merely incidental in the teaching of history, then the results are less positive.

In view of the fact that most of our supervisors of student teaching state, as will be seen later, that their undergraduate and graduate academic majors and minors have been in fields other than geography one might raise a question as to the emphasis geography receives. More research and detailed study of this problem should be made before evaluating this aspect of the survey.

Relations Between Instructors in Geography in College Departments and Supervisors of Student Teaching in Laboratory Schools

The problems arising out of the relations between the college

[3] For a six-year program of geography in the junior and senior high schools refer to *Course of Study in Geography for Secondary Schools: A Progress Report,* Bulletin 412, 1951, published by the Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, 56-285.

departments of geography and the laboratory schools, between geographers and supervisors, are familiar to everyone. In most of our schools these relations have not been satisfactorily worked out.

In answer to the question: "Does the supervisor of student teaching, teach any classes in geography at the college level?" we find in Table V that out of 252 returns 228 say no.

TABLE V. DO SUPERVISORS TEACH AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL?

No	228
Yes	16
No answer	5
Summer session	3
	252

In colleges where the supervisor does teach at the college level the courses are the so-called method courses, workshop courses and a few listed subject-matter courses. Only nine teachers listed geography as one of the courses taught at the college level.

The practice of assigning the supervisors to teach the college courses is excellent for a number of reasons.

Does the teacher of geography at the college level supervise in any way the student teacher in the laboratory school? The results of the survey summarized in Table VI show that few college geographers evince any interest in supervising the student teacher. In view of this seeming lack of interest perhaps the college instructor is missing an opportunity to be of real service in the task of developing teachers of geography. This is an old problem and one which has to be handled with finesse. In many cases the critic does not welcome co-operation and then too, the college instructor is often not interested in the task. If college instructors and supervisors are intelligent mature people it seems that they should be able to work harmoniously on this problem of directing the training of the student teachers.

TABLE VI. DO COLLEGE TEACHERS SUPERVISE STUDENT TEACHING?

No	158
Visits occasionally	44
Yes	16
No answer	34
	252

The nature of the help given by the college instructor to the supervisor can be ascertained by a few quotations from the questionnaires as follows: "Occasionally in elementary, regularly in secondary;" "Only as a consultant," "Never," "Seldom," "On invitation," "Have given some helpful suggestions," "Gives help

when asked by students," "Acts as consultant," "In practical discussion," "Visits suggested," "We suggest visits," "Hasn't this year."

Academic and Professional Training of the Critic or Supervisor in the Field of Geography

The major objective of this thesis was to make a study of the academic and professional training of the critic or supervisor in the field of geography. The answers to the question are revealed in the tables that follow. The results are most interesting, tho somewhat disturbing. A careful examination of the academic fields in which supervisors have majored or minored in their training, highlights a problem facing the professional geographers.

The situation calls for vigorous action. It is evident that we must work for the inclusion of geography courses in education majors. The English and history fields have been more successful than have we in the field of geography.

Table VII. Undergraduate Training

Major		*Minor*	
Professional Courses:		Professional Courses:	
Elementary Education	48	Education	13
Education	45	Psychology	4
Psychology	3	Supervision of Elementary Education	1
Primary Education	3	Secondary Education	1
Music Education	2	Guidance and Counseling	1
Administration-Supervision	1		
Business Administration	1		
Academic Subject Matter:		Academic Subject Matter:	
English	39	English	43
History	28	Social Studies	32
Social Studies	27	History	21
Geography	8	Science	15
Science	7	Mathematics	12
Mathematics	4	**Geography**	12
Economics	2	Foreign Language	11
Speech	2	Music	4
Biology	2	Speech	4
Physical Science	1	Industrial Arts	3
Art	1	Biology	3
Latin	1	Political Science	3
German	1	Physical Education	2
Geology	1	Home Economics	2
Political Science	1	Sociology	2
		Chemistry	2
		Economics	2
		Zoology	1
		Nature Study	1
		Business	1
No answer	44	Liberal Arts	1
Minor, no answer	42	Earth Science	1
Major, no answer	2	Dramatics	1

TABLE VIII. GRADUATE TRAINING

Major		*Minor*	
Professional Courses:		Professional Courses:	
Education	107	Education	20
Supervision	25	Psychology	12
Education Administration	16	Supervision	7
Psychology	6	Administration	6
General Curriculum	3	Educational Psychology	5
Educational Psychology	1	Guidance	5
Teaching of History	1	Audio Visual Education	1
		Curriculum	1
		History of Education	1
		Business Administration	1
Academic Subject Matter:		Academic Subject Matter:	
Social Studies	10	Social Studies	21
History	11	English	18
Geography	8	History	13
English	5	**Geography**	6
Science	1	Sociology	4
Government	1	Speech	2
Zoology	1	Earth Science	1
Nature Science	1	Economics	1
Art	1	Related Fields	1
Music	1	Zoology	1
		Biology	1
Minor, no answer	74	Science	1
No answer	60	Art	1
Major, no answer	1	Political Science	1

The supervisor offers ample preparation in the professional and educational field. But can these supervisors with special training in English, history, and social studies develop teachers for our elementary schools who can handle geographic concepts? Only eight out of 252 admit having a major and 12 a minor in geography.

A vigorous campaign should be initiated to get our state officers and departments of education to require geography courses in the preparation of teachers for supervisory positions.

As is clearly indicated in Tables VII and VIII, the professional training at both undergraduate and graduate levels presents well balanced training including education, psychology, administration, supervision and curriculum courses.

GEOGRAPHY COURSES TAKEN BY SUPERVISORS IN THEIR UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE TRAINING

In Table IX the geography courses taken by supervisors in their undergraduate training is summarized and presented in a more or less familiar picture.

Most of the supervisors have had courses in Elements of Geography either under that name, or under the heading, Human Geography or Principles of Geography. Then, in the following order

Table IX. Geography Courses Taken by Supervisors

Elements of Geography (Human Geography, Principles of Geography)	99
Economic (Commercial)	73
Continental (Regional Studies)	
North America and United States	83
South America	37
Europe	42
Asia	25
Africa	9
Antarctica	2
Central America	1
Regional	19
World	35
Physiography (and Geology)	60
Meteorology (Climatology and Weather and Climate)	23
States Geography	20
Conservation	11
Political Geography	9
Earth Science	7
Anthropology	3
Local-Home	2
Social Geography	2

they have taken courses in North America, Economic Geography, Physiography (Geology), Europe, South America, World Geography, Asia, and Conservation, most frequently. While these courses are currently included in our college curricula are we as professional geographers prepared to state that they provide the type of training the supervisor needs in the task she is called upon to perform? The committee agrees that this problem requires some serious study. Some interesting facts for comparative purposes may be obtained by a study of Tables IX and X.

At the graduate level the courses taken do not lend themselves to any special grouping as in the case of the undergraduate courses. A total of 82 different courses were submitted as graduate courses.

Recommendations by Supervisors of Academic Courses in Geography as Minimum Requirements for Training of Supervisors of Student Teaching

One aspect of the survey which seems particularly significant deals with this problem of minimum requirements in the field of geography. The supervisors recognizing the need for such training have listed a total of some 60 different courses. Obviously many of the courses listed reflect the offering in the schools from which they were graduated. A brief summary of the suggestions follows in Table X. The list is valuable in that it shows the kind of courses supervisors have found most helpful.

It is abundantly clear that all feel that Elements or Principles of Geography are valuable as it heads the list. Other courses most

frequently mentioned are Economic Geography, World Geography, with Continental and Regional Courses. Note also that Conservation is frequently recommended.

Since most of the teaching of geography is concentrated in the intermediate and junior and senior high schools these grade levels are considered in the following table.

TABLE X. COURSES RECOMMENDED BY IN-SERVICE SUPERVISORS

Intermediate Grades

Principles of Geography	58	General Course in Geography	6
Economic Geography	30	Social Studies	5
World Geography	28	Africa	5
Europe	24	Political Geography	4
North America	22	Current Events	4
Geography of United States	21	Map and Field Work	4
Conservation	13	Global Geography	3
Latin America	13	Climate and Man	3
Asia	13	Eastern Hemisphere	3
Regional Geography	12	Eurasia	3
South America	10	Geography and History	3
Physical Geography	8	History of Civilization	3
Human Geography	8	Others	30
Earth Science	7		

Junior High School		*Senior High School*	
Elements of Geography	34	Economic Geography	29
Economic Geography	26	Elements of Geography	19
World Geography	20	World Geography	16
Europe	19	Europe	15
North America	15	South America	12
Regional Geography	12	Political Geography	12
South America	11	Asia	10
Asia	11	North America	10
Geography of United States	11	Conservation	9
Conservation	10	Geology	8
Cartography	10	Regional Geography	7
Climatology	10	Physical Geography	6
Geology	10	United States	6
Human Geography	8	Africa	5
Physical Geography	8	Climatology	5
Political Geography	7	Human Geography	4
Latin America	5	Current Problems	4
Meteorology	4	Meteorology	4
Current Problems	4	Weather and Climate	4
Historical Geography	3	Pacific Realm	3
General Geography	3	Australia	3
Others	37	Historical Geography	3
		Others	30

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As stated in the title of this study the main purpose of this research project was to discover the academic and professional preparation of the critic or supervisor in the field of geography.

Whereas, as a result of the investigation it has been discovered that:

1. The grade level of instruction of most of the supervisors contributing to this report was in the intermediate and junior high school grades.
2. Most of the geographic concepts, understandings and skills are taught and developed in these grades.
3. Most of these skills are taught in the integrated social studies program.
4. In most of the reporting schools, there is little co-operation between the college instructor and the supervisor.
5. The professional and educational preparation of most supervisors appears adequate.
6. The academic preparation of most of the supervisors, on the other hand, is shown to be in fields other than geography at both the undergraduate and graduate level.
7. Most supervisors express a feeling of the need for greater training in the field of geography as indicated by courses recommended for future supervisors by teachers answering the questionnaire.

Therefore, be it resolved that:

1. The Committee on Standards of Certification be continued as a project committee.
2. The Committee be instructed to investigate the present practice and bases for the Certification of critic and supervisors in various State Teachers Colleges.
3. To make recommendations for securing more adequate academic training in the field of geography for teachers supervising student teachers in the field of geography.

Co-operation—A Requisite in Research

The promotion of geographic research and the advancement of geographic education has been the main objective of the National Council of Geography Teachers since its organization in the early part of the present century. Thru the years, the National Council of Geography Teachers has never lost sight of its high purpose, and thru its various committees has encouraged and financed research projects and has thus continued to make contributions in the field of geographic research. Such research is made possible thru the co-operation of many agencies working toward a common goal.

The Committee on Standards of Certification is deeply appreciative of the courteous response they received to their correspondence

in connection with this study. An expression of sincere thanks is extended to Deans of Colleges of Education, Principals of Laboratory Schools and especially to those supervisors who so carefully filled out the questionnaires. Without their co-operation our study could not have been made.

The Committee, individually and collectively, will welcome any criticism or suggestion on this report and urges you to write to them. Our common interest is securing more adequate training in the preparation of the supervisors of student teaching so that we may provide the children in our elementary and secondary schools of our nation with better teachers in the field of geography.

COMMITTEE MEMBERSHIP

Ina Cullom Robertson, Chairman, State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota; Dr. Clyde F. Kohn, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois; Dr. Earl Shaw, State Teachers College, Worcester, Massachusetts; and Dr. Veva Dean, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania.

TEACHING LOCATIONAL GEOGRAPHY ON THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL

EDWARD COLESON
University of Michigan

Our deficiencies in geographic knowledge even among people presumed to be educated can hardly be exaggerated. A Gallup survey conducted a few years ago found that two-thirds of the people interviewed could not find Greece on an outline map, nearly half failed on Spain, and one-third couldn't locate France. If you know where Czechoslovakia is you're one in four and if you can find where the Low Countries or the Balkan Nations are, you are a rare individual indeed. The findings of the *New York Times,* other studies reported in the literature and our experience here at the university, strongly substantiate these appalling statistics. Indeed, if we were as ignorant generally, most people in America would have to sign their names with an "X."

The Gallup test of course was simply location, and fairly elementary at that. But a test is always only a sampling. A perfect score would not necessarily indicate a geographer, but may we not safely conclude that the 50 per cent who couldn't find Spain didn't

know much else about it, or Europe either? Certainly, the position, shape and relative size of Spain, Czechoslovakia or Greece are not unimportant details in themselves. It is inconceivable that a person would get very far with a serious study of any country without becoming curious as to what it might look like and who its neighbors might be. But have we not greatly overworked the case against location in the light of present practices?

Need of Locational Geography

Many geographers have developed what amounts to a phobia against what they call the old "place geography." There was reason for a rebellion against what geography was, nor would any of us wish to return to the atrocious job of trying to pound 325 place names for Grade III and 1,300 for Grade VI into the poor kids' heads. But that was a long time ago. For some years past geographers by their own vociferous objections to practices largely outmoded anyway are inclined to give the impression the geography teacher has no responsibility for the map. Somewhere between trying to memorize every little whistle stop and not knowing where the Pacific is, a middle way should be found. At least somebody ought to teach children where a few places are. If the geographers won't, someone else will have to. To fail to do so will only further weaken a subject already in a precarious position. Nor is this to imply that geography is simply location.

To illustrate, a high school history teacher stated he had found that he always had to preface his world history course with map work so that the children would know where the more important countries and water bodies mentioned in the book were. He then went on to say he was not criticizing their geography teacher. He knew her and she was a very good teacher but they didn't learn any geography that stayed till they got to him as far as he could discover. Such a statement, while perhaps polite, is absurd. If she taught well, they should have learned a little; for is not a little learning implicit in the word teaching?

It Can Be Taught

It perhaps would have been better to say that geography was much more than location rather than to give the impression to the poorly trained teacher of the public school that she had no responsibility for the map. In fact if she had given them a little drill on that,

it would have been something. It became very apparent to the writer several years ago that one of the prime requisites of effective geography and history teaching was an elementary knowledge of place geography, if you want to call it that. This early work, begun in the fourth grade, exceeded the demands of the usual "journey geography" and was taught and memorized in odd times on pure drill principles, but keeping the work on the play level. In view of the current trend of delaying formal geography with maps even longer than has been the practice, this will seem too soon to many. It is also out of line with the persistent belief that our failure to get across any geography is that we start too soon. It is the writer's opinion that the famous Fabian tactics of delay have been sadly overworked here: the adults tested by Gallup could have learned if anyone had taken the trouble to teach them somewhere along the way or even made it seem important for them to know a little along this line.

Perhaps I could make clear what I mean by comparison. Arithmetic is a subject which involves the solution of problems. Yet there is a considerable body of material such as the tables, combinations, weights and measures, and purely mechanical operations which can be best taught, notwithstanding all the ideas to the contrary, by simple drill, which doesn't have to be stupid and deadening, nor does it preclude the idea that the children should understand what they're doing. To say a student is a mathematician because he knows how to do the mechanical operation doesn't make sense. Yet however good a mind he may have, he is going to be hopelessly handicapped if he doesn't know his fundamental facts and operations. Too much good time will be lost muddling thru what should come almost instantly, leaving the mind free to concentrate on thinking thru the problem.

While arithmetic and geography are quite dissimilar, yet both should be problem solving subjects, each in its own way, and geography too has a considerable body of information that should become automatic. Every child should have a portable map he carries around in his head. No child above the fifth grade should have to fumble around trying to find the St. Lawrence or the Mediterranean Sea any more than he should have to count six plus nine on his fingers. It is just so much easier to understand the movements of men and armies, trade, etc. when the students don't have to grope their way around.

METHOD

The method of teaching location is comparatively simple. Children seem to want to know where things are until the instinct has been stifled by bad teaching. Never lose sight of the fact that this is not geography but only provides the framework on which to hang it. While a complete discussion on learning to use maps is outside the scope of the present article a few suggestions on map drill may be helpful.

Use outline wall maps habitually. Mountains may be added or dots for the cities, but never names. Small maps for individual work are all right but avoid the idea that we do them to get it done, then forget it. Since the children will easily get hopelessly bogged down in detail if left to their own devices, a list of what is important needs to be worked out under the teacher's direction. Don't let the list get too long too fast and never let it grow out of proportion. Start with a small number and add from time to time, but remember what is learned is "for keeps."

Use a variety of devices. A "down" patterned after the old-fashioned spelldown is fun. We used this device every couple of weeks. We agreed on the area to be covered in advance so preparation could be made by the pupils. Often it might be a continent; sometimes the whole world and work from previous years. The pupils would study four times as hard for one as they would for a six weeks' test. A more elaborate form of the same is the "baseball" drill device. Avoid undue machinery but keep the drill on a rapid fire basis. Review and summarize often as part of the recitation period. All of this should include a good deal more than mere location and a few isolated facts. Thought questions when kept within the abilities of the children will stimulate interest and help to show that knowledge is relevant to the solution of the problems of men and nations.

Individual differences can be provided for by varying the difficulty of the questions between the two ends of the line and by inverting the order when the more able get to the head. I have also found that the poorer students, whose batting average on a formal test wouldn't be so good, frequently come up with the right answer and get even up to the head of the line. This has considerable motivational value as it gives them a sense of accomplishment and inspires them to try to hold their place.

The busy teacher who is struggling to finish a big geography

book which the pupils may read with difficulty may complain she has no time for "such things." Pupils often get the notion that last week's work is "out of bounds"—you're not supposed to ask about that. However, when the teacher gets the idea she has something definite to teach, the pupils will "catch on" that they're not just covering work. Then we'll begin to get results in some respects commensurate with our expenditure of time and money, and students won't come to college in the pathetically ignorant condition they do now.

THE DAILY GEOGRAPHIC NEWS: A PUPIL NEWSPAPER

LINNIE B. JAMES
Forest Hills Junior High School

Often the geography teacher is challenged to use a device which will give her students a chance to plan and direct work and an opportunity to practice cooperation in order to achieve the common goal of the class. This article is a description of a piece of work (*The Daily Geographic News,* a daily newspaper issued by a geography class) done by an eighth grade which seemed to answer this challenge.

PRELIMINARY TEACHER PLANNING

At the first meeting of this class, the students expressed a desire to study geography in a way which would allow each one to work at his own rate of speed. The students asked if the work might be arranged so that each one might work at an individual assignment which would contribute to one large piece of work. In short, they wished to have more or less of an activity program.

Several suggestions were made which would include the type of work most of them preferred but the one which seemed to appeal to the majority of them was the issuing of a daily newspaper dealing with the geographic side of the news. The paper was to be posted on the bulletin board every day at the close of the class period beside a world map. Strings would lead from the articles in the paper to the country on the map to show the location of the world event.

Objectives

The teacher set up objectives as follows:

1. To have the students learn to work cooperatively with others.
2. To have the students assume responsibility.
3. To have each student feel that his contribution is vital to the success of the whole.
4. To teach appreciation of the ability of some of the less capable members of the class.
5. To make the students conscious of world events and of the importance of these happenings to us.
6. To show how people, countries, and events are influenced by geographic conditions.

Teacher-Student Development

The next day the discussion in class ran somewhat as follows:

"If we put out a daily issue of the paper, we'll need to do some planning so that everything will run smoothly. Has anyone visited the newsroom of any of our daily newspapers? What impression did you get while visiting there? What did you see? How do news reporters feel about their work? Each of us will have to feel as responsible and be as dependable as the news reporters are.

"What shall we put in our paper? The one thing we want to remember is that we are to emphasize the geographic side of the articles. Now what sections can we put in our paper?"

The students made suggestions as to what they believed should be in a paper of this type. A list of the different features was put on the board for later reference.

"In the newsroom of our daily papers, who heads up the whole organization?" "The editor-in-chief." "In general, what would some of his duties and responsibilities be? He has several assistants who take part of his responsibilities, doesn't he? Whom shall we ask to be our editor? Shall we let him choose his own assistant?

"Now, let's decide what departments we will need and how many people it will take to handle the daily topics of each department. As we discuss the different ones, if you think you would like to work on any particular section of our paper, raise your hand and the editor will make note of your choice and try to assign you to that particular section. Everyone will have a definite piece of work to contribute every two days." As suggestions were made, a

list of the different sections and the number of workers needed for each were placed on the board. Requests for assignments on the various features were also listed.

The work of the departments was outlined as follows:

1. **Editorial staff.**
   a. **Editor and chief assistant.** The editor makes the over-all plan of what the daily issue shall contain. This plan should be made out two days before the date of issue so that the teacher has a chance to check. The editor and his assistant will meet twice a week with the teacher before school to plan two or three issues in advance. This will give the teacher a chance to make suggestions so that the pupils will receive assignments suited to their ability. (It is helpful to have a large piece of paper marked off into two inch squares with the pupils' names at the left and the dates listed at the top of the columns. Opposite the pupils' names write in the assignments for which they are responsible. In this way the list of articles which are to appear in any one issue can be seen and assignments checked off when handed in. It also gives an over-all picture of the daily issue. Each pupil feels his responsibility toward making the issue complete.)
   b. **Cartographers.** These students find the maps of the countries, cities, or sections of the United States mentioned in the news item. These maps are drawn or traced (according to the ability of the students) on the middle of a sheet on which the article will be typed.
   c. **Proof-readers.** After the articles have been written, they are taken to the proof-readers' desk. Here the articles are checked for content, spelling, and sentence structure. Then the article is handed to the teacher who checks for errors. It is then given to the editor who checks the article off the assignment sheet and gives the completed assignment to the typists.
   d. **Typists.** If a daily edition is planned, three typists can handle the typing in one period. Of course, this depends on the number of pages in each issue.
2. **Daily Features.**
   a. **News Items.** News readers are students who select two or three interesting news items from the daily newspaper or from a radio news broadcast, condense each of them into a sentence or two and hand them to the editor. These news readers are responsible for one long assignment a week from the editor.

b. **Geography Behind the News.** Six reporters are necessary for this assignment. The geography of the country mentioned in the item should be given. This should include the location, surface, climate, natural resources, chief industries of the country and something about the people of the country. If possible have the reporters tell how the news item may have been influenced by the geography of the country. Graphs and charts add interest to these articles.

c. **Weather Report.** This reporter calls the weather bureau every morning for temperature, humidity, and weather forecast for the day. (If there is no weather bureau near, the report can be obtained from the radio or newspaper.) Occasionally a weather map or climatic graph for some place mentioned in the news might be included.

d. **Geography Quiz.** Five questions daily, crisscross puzzles, missing word puzzles, unnamed maps, any of these will make the quiz section interesting. Two students can take care of this section.

e. **Sports Section.** Two sportswriters give the report on any local games, international contests. Once a week an article is written on the national sport of some country. Often the sport is influenced by the geography of the country.

f. **Feature Articles.** Six or more students report on:

1) Scientific Reports. These are short descriptions and explanations of volcanoes, tidal waves, hurricanes, earthquakes, etc.

2) Travel News. This will feature places to visit. Descriptions of the attractions of some of the resorts, something about the climate of the region and the scenery will make interesting articles. Plans for trips may be given telling what to see enroute, type of clothing to be taken, etc.

3) "Strange As It May Seem." Unusual facts collected about places in the world.

4) Architecture. This includes sketches of the homes of the people living in these lands with a short article telling how the style of architecture was influenced by the geography of the country.

g. **Women's Pages.** Two or more writers may prepare material suggested by the following list:

1) Articles on the dress of the people. Explain how the type and the style of clothing is affected by the geography of

the country. Select countries mentioned in the news items of the day.

2) Tell about the handicraft of the country. For example, discuss how the woodcarving of Switzerland developed because of the long evenings and nearness of raw materials.
3) Sketch designs used in handicraft.
4) Design material for ladies' print dresses. For example, designs may come from ideas prompted by the study of the geography of certain countries such as the grapes of France, the palm trees of tropical lands.
5) Geography of cookery. Include recipes which are popular in the country mentioned in the news or in the Travel Section.

h. **School News.** One reporter interviews the principal on happenings or items of interest to the school body.

3. **Art Department.** This department makes interesting sketches of scenery, homes and people described in the article on "Geography Behind the News." Sketches are made to illustrate any of the articles such as Travel News or Women's Pages.
4. **Advertising Department.** This department advertises products exported by the country mentioned in the issue. (Egyptian cotton, Brazilian coffee, etc.)
5. **Cartoons or Comic Strip.** This department can put over some idea or message thru cartoons or comic strips. Daily happenings will suggest topics for them.

STAFF MEETING

Each Friday the class was called together to summarize the work of the week. The news items were discussed. The reporter who wrote the Geography Behind the News for the item was asked to give a brief summary of the geography of the country. The discussion was always accompanied with map reading and the interpretation of any graphs or charts so that the entire class would get the benefit of the research made by a few. The work of the other reporters was evaluated by the class as other items were discussed.

TEACHER'S EVALUATION

1. It made the entire class more conscious of world happenings.
2. It made the students aware of the fact that there are many factors behind events in the news and the geographic ones often help to explain why the event happened.

3. The feeling that everyone's work was needed provided a daily motivation and a challenge to do one's best.

4. Every member of the class fitted in somewhere. The slow learner experienced success as well as the best students.

5. There were no discipline problems. Interest and activity eliminated such problems.

6. The enthusiasm of the class did not die down due to the daily motivation of getting the issue out on time.

7. It presented an opportunity for practicing good citizenship.

Student Evaluation

Perhaps the best way of evaluating the work from the student viewpoint is to quote verbatim the unsigned statements written by two of the members of the class.

"This kind of geography has helped me understand the news of the world. Instead of just reading the headlines I have learned to understand why these events are taking place."

"I have enjoyed the geography class because it taught me responsibility and how to get along with others. It is also my favorite class because you do the things the way you want to and you don't have teachers hovering over you telling you how to do it."

Conclusion*

This work can be carried on as long as interest is sustained. In this particular case, the paper was published for one semester, each of three sections carrying on the work for one six weeks period. The length of the class period was 45 minutes. There were 31 students in each section.

* Mrs. James sent us a copy of *Daily Geographic News* Vol. II, Issue XV, March 13, 1951. I wish all the readers could have the opportunity to see it. (Editor's Note)

A SURVEY OF THE KNOWLEDGE OF INCOMING STUDENTS IN COLLEGE GEOGRAPHY

KENNETH J. WILLIAMS
Eugene, Oregon

The purpose of this study is to show precisely what the incoming students in college know of the basic role played by a knowledge of Place Geography of the United States. Many people believe that knowledge of the states is poor and accept it for granted. They may even feel that a study on this subject is unwarranted. But this . . . "report proves (what we know already but could not prove so widely) that our incoming freshmen have not been trained properly . . ."[1] in basic geographic fundamentals and therefore, have not received the full significance in the elementary and secondary geographical training.

METHOD OF STUDY

The method of this study was the selecting of 15 universities which were evenly distributed thruout the United States. After contacting 32 universities, 13 schools eventually participated in the survey. These were fairly well distributed.

Base maps of the United States were mimeographed by the writer and sent to the schools with return postage, in order that the writer could grade and tabulate the results. These base maps were given to students in the beginning courses of geography. The students were asked to indicate the individual states by placing the names within their proper boundaries. In order to have some standardization in the examination, each school was allotted 20 to 30 minutes to complete the quiz. There were 2,084 students examined in this survey.

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

To determine the results of this survey the individual examination was marked for the states missed. After this was completed, the results were tabulated for the number of states missed by each school. The results of this sample were best shown in a combination of the schools examined in one region instead of showing individual schools. Therefore, the results for the United States were shown in three different sections; first, the Western States consisting of

[1] Moore, Carlisle, "Do we protest too much?", *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, Vol. 36, Autumn 1950, 541.

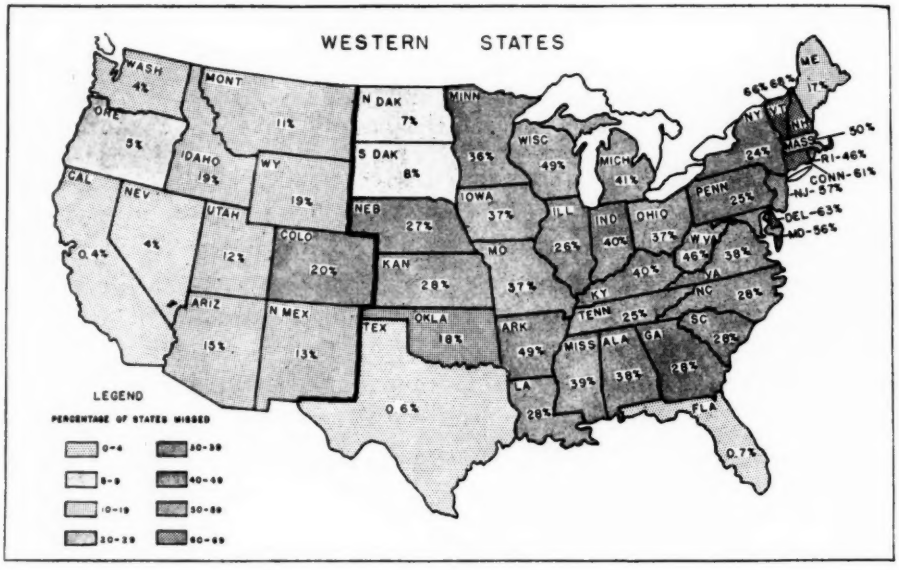

FIG. 1

five universities examined with a total of 1,253 students (Fig. 1); second, the Mid-West States in which four universities and 477 students were examined (Fig. 2); and third, the Eastern States having four universities examined with 354 students participating (Fig. 3).[2] The results shown by the means of a percentage map for each section indicates the percentage of states missed.

It is very difficult to show the combined average of the states missed by all students in the survey because of the different numbers of students for each section which would distort the picture.

By the means of statistics we determined which of the three was the better section. It was shown that the average percentage of error for the Eastern States amounted to 25.9 per cent, while the percentage of error computed for the Mid-West States was 30.4 per cent. The question arises as to whether the obtained difference of 4.5 per cent in the means is significant.

In other words, what are the chances that students in the Eastern States will, on the average, be superior to those in the Mid-West States in these tests? A statistical approach shows that the chances are 93 in 100 that the true difference in the means is greater than zero. There are, therefore, 93 chances in 100 that the

[2] The reader should examine the maps very carefully because they have more value than words can express.

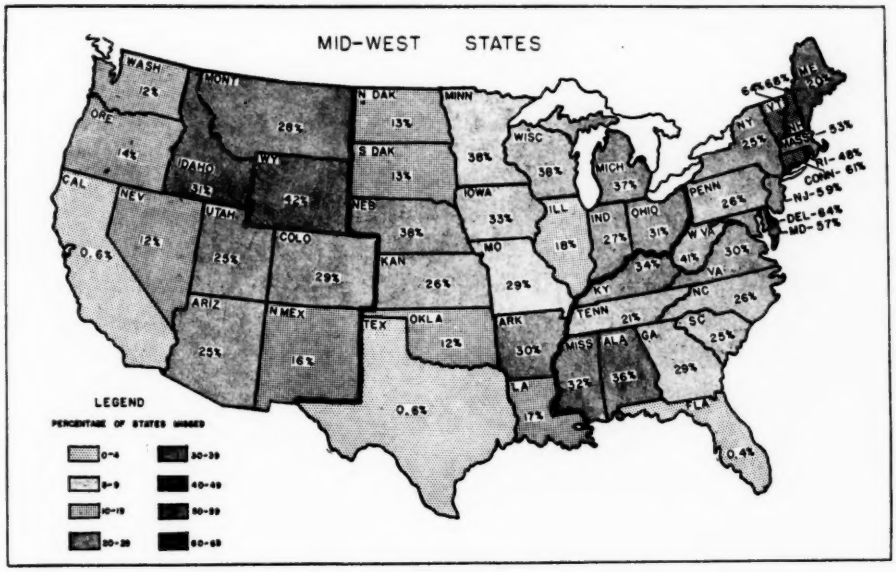
MID-WEST STATES
WASH 12%
MONT 28%
N DAK 13%
MINN 38%
ORE 14%
S DAK 13%
WISC 38%
MICH 37%
IDAHO 31%
WY 42%
NEB 36%
IOWA 33%
ILL 18%
CAL 0.6%
NEV 12%
UTAH 25%
COLO 29%
KAN 26%
MO 29%
IND 27%
OHIO 31%
PENN 26%
W VA 41%
30%
34%
VA
KY
NC 26%
TENN 21%
SC 25%
ARIZ 25%
N MEX 16%
TEX 0.6%
OKLA 12%
ARK 30%
MISS
ALA
GA 29%
LA 17%
FLA 0.4%
N.Y. 25%
VT
NH
MASS 53%
RI- 48%
CONN- 61%
NJ-59%
DEL-64%
MD- 57%
LEGEND
PERCENTAGE OF STATES MISSED
0-4
5-9
10-19
20-29
30-39
40-49
50-59
60-69

FIG. 2

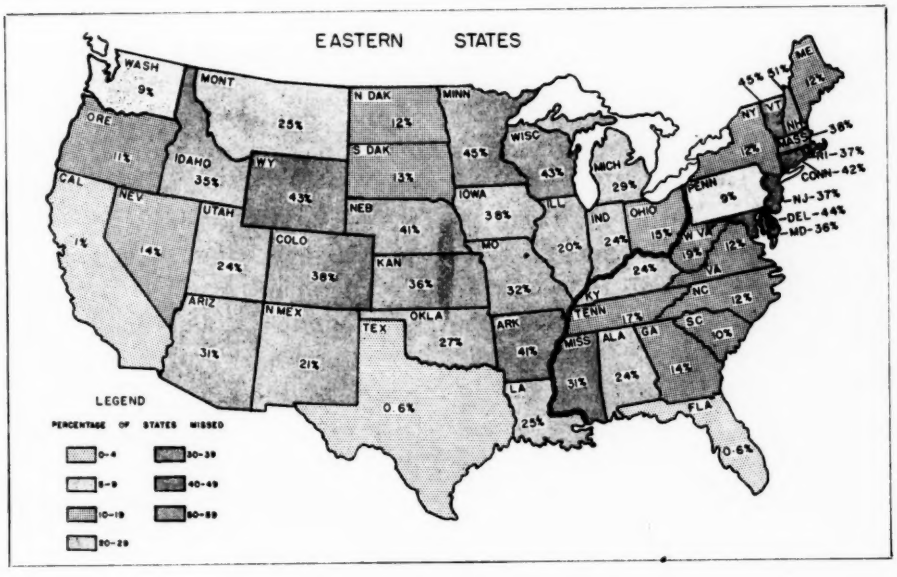
EASTERN STATES
WASH 9%
MONT 25%
N DAK 12%
MINN 45%
ORE 11%
S DAK 13%
WISC 43%
MICH 29%
IDAHO 35%
WY 43%
NEB 41%
IOWA 38%
ILL 20%
CAL 1%
NEV 14%
UTAH 24%
COLO 38%
KAN 36%
MO 32%
IND 24%
OHIO 15%
PENN 9%
W VA 19%
12%
24%
VA
KY
NC 12%
TENN 17%
SC 10%
ARIZ 31%
N MEX 21%
TEX 0.6%
OKLA 27%
ARK 41%
MISS 31%
ALA 24%
GA 14%
LA 25%
FLA 10.6%
45% 51%
ME 12%
N.Y. 12%
VT
NH
MASS 38%
RI- 37%
CONN- 42%
NJ-37%
DEL-44%
MD-36%
LEGEND
PERCENTAGE OF STATES MISSED
0-4
5-9
10-19
20-29
30-39
40-49
50-59

FIG. 3

Eastern States will, on the average, score better than the Mid-West States. To put it another way, the true difference between the mean score of the two sections is greater than zero and is in favor of the Eastern States.

In the latter procedure, we will show the difference between the Eastern States and the Western States. The Western States had a percentage of error of 30 per cent; therefore, the obtained difference between the percentage of error is 4.1 per cent. This proved that the chances are 88 in 100 that the true difference in the means is greater than zero. It also proved that the difference is in favor of the Eastern States; therefore, the Eastern States are superior to the Mid-West and Western States.

With this same system we will find the difference between the Mid-West and Western States. In this particular case the obtained difference was only .4 per cent, and there are only 34 chances in 100 that the true difference in the means is greater than zero. This difference is not significant, but it shows that in this sample the Western States were slightly better than the Mid-West States.

Thus, by means of statistics it has been demonstrated that any other study within these sections will produce similar conclusions if conducted under the same conditions. It was also noted that the survey was significant.

Taking the three sections as a whole, the Eastern States did better than the Mid-West States, while the Western States did better than the Mid-West States. This can be explained by size and location. Those states in the West and Mid-West were easier found by the Eastern students than were the Eastern States by the Mid-West and Western students. Here, size and position of the states were foremost. Also those states which are most publicized in one way or another were missed least. California, Texas, and Florida are the most obvious examples. They are also two of the largest states in the Union. The smallest states of the East Coast, such as Vermont, New Hampshire, and Delaware, were missed the most. There is one exception and that is the State of Rhode Island, which was missed less than any of the other small states of the East because, evidently, more students remembered that it is the smallest state in the Union.

All this is very interesting, but is it of any value? Basically it is, for it proves, in a simple way, that the beginning student is uninformed and possesses many erroneous views of his country. Nat-

urally, it will do students little good to memorize the names of the states if they have little idea of where they are. Otherwise, how can they understand the problems of people and the interrelationships which exist between states and even sections of the United States? For example, what misconceptions do students have who place Mississippi in Oregon; Ohio in Colorado; Maryland in Louisiana; Maine in North Dakota? Another type of misconception occurs when students call Louisiana, New Orleans; Indiana, Ontario; Missouri, Manila; and Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh. The number of the students who had these misconceptions warrants this notice.

Out of the 13 schools examined it was found six schools were educating students who did not know the state in which they were residing. In fact, at one school 15 per cent missed their own state; at another school 13 per cent missed.

It is safe to assume that in examining the states missed by each section, the instructor in the beginning college courses in geography must have a difficult task in lecturing to these students. For example, if an instructor in the Western States is lecturing on the "Dairying of the United States" and mentions Wisconsin as one of the most important producers of dairy products, 49 per cent of the students do not know where the state is located. An instructor who is teaching Mid-West students and lecturing on the effect of the continental glaciation on Vermont and New Hampshire is handicapped because over 60 per cent of the students do not know exactly where these states are located. In other words, when a student is listening to a lecture there is a good chance that he or she will know what the instructor is discussing but cannot locate the state in which the phenomenon is situated.

This indicates that students entering college or finishing high school are lacking in a basic knowledge of the United States. This is based purely on the supposition that if they do not have a fundamental knowledge of the position of the individual states they cannot fully understand or appreciate their mutual interdependence. If the over-all percentage missed had been much lower, there would be little point in this discussion; however, it is felt that the amount missed justified this attention. But it would be wrong and it would defeat our purpose if the location of the states was learned and nothing else. This location is only a tool to reach our goal, that is, the understanding and appreciation of our country.

CONCLUSION

A solution rather than a conclusion is more appropriate here. It has been shown that our students have these deficiencies. Yet, published articles of the past ten years indicate that there is a decline in the number of geography courses offered in elementary and secondary schools. This, coupled with the fact that the tools of geography—maps, globes, and atlases—have not been employed to their best use, is the root of our trouble. Place geography by itself is of little value, but associated with other phases, its fullest value is realized. If the students, in their studies, can use outline or base maps to register the various physical, economic, and cultural aspects, geographical problems become more graphic to them. By using many of these base maps they can visualize more clearly the points we are striving to teach them. This method could be applied to county, state, regional, or national studies. Then the students have their map folios for reference and study. The writer believes that this is one of the most effective means of teaching geography.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to acknowledge, with deepest gratitude, the assistance of the following persons and schools who administered the examination of beginning students in geography. Dr. William L. Garrison, Professor H. E. Tennant, University of Washington; Dr. S. N. Dicken, Chairman, Professor James C. Stovall, University of Oregon; Dr. Benjamin E. Thomas, University of California at Los Angeles; Professor Melvin E. Kazeck, University of North Dakota; Professor Ruth Linder, University of Wyoming; Dr. Harold A. Hoffmeister, Chairman, University of Colorado; Dr. Edwin J. Foscue, Chairman, Dr. Virginia Bradley, Southern Methodist University; Dr. Dan Stanislawski, University of Texas; Dr. Clyde F. Kohn, Dr. Edward B. Espenshade, Northwestern University; Dr. T. R. Meyers, Chairman, University of New Hampshire; Dr. Robert D. Cambell, Chairman, George Washington University; Dr. J. R. Schwendeman, Chairman, University of Kentucky; Dr. J. Riley Staats, Chairman, University of Miami. Also I want to acknowledge the comments and suggestions by the following men who did not give the examination. Dr. Jan O. M. Broek, Chairman, University of Minnesota; Dr. H. H. McCarty, Chairman, University of Iowa; Professor Edward C. Prophet, Michigan State College; Dr. Harry H. Caldwell, University of Idaho.

A BASIS FOR STUDYING THE SUPPLY OF GEOGRAPHERS

CLAUDE E. HAWLEY AND LEWIS A. DEXTER
Washington, D.C.

Three recent studies by the U. S. Office of Education[1] show that about 0.5 of 1 per cent of all doctorates, 0.4 of 1 per cent of all master's degrees, and 0.01 of 1 per cent of all bachelor's degrees awarded in the United States, 1947-50, were in the field of geography. The proportion of geography degrees awarded kept about even with the total number of degrees awarded. The absolute number of doctorates awarded during the three years was 85, of master's degrees was 494, and of bachelor's degrees was 1,593.

The institutions which stress geography as an undergraduate major are few in number. They include California, Carleton, Chicago, Clark, Hunter, Kansas City, Kentucky, Miami (Florida), Michigan, Middlebury, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma A. and M., Oregon, Pittsburgh, Southern Illinois, Texas, Valparaiso, University of Washington, George Washington, and Wisconsin. Collectively, the teachers colleges list a fair proportion of these bachelor's degrees in geography. Individually, three of the Pennsylvania State Teachers Colleges, those at Clarion, Shippensberg, and West Chester, have graduated a number of students in geography.[2]

Most of the master's degrees were awarded by institutions shown on the table below as giving doctorates. But master's degrees were also given by Boston University, Brigham Young,

[1] Robert C. Story, *Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1947-48* (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Circular No. 247). *Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1948-49* (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Circular No. 262). *Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1949-50* (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Circular No. 282).

[2] Figures on bachelor's degrees are not entirely satisfactory. First, there is the problem of nomenclature—the definition of a major or of "geography" may vary considerably from school to school. Second, there is the problem of overcoming the possibility of omission or error at various stages of recording. Analysis of the reports for 1948-49 indicated that 112 schools believed to have active political science departments reported awarding no degrees in that area during the year. A letter of inquiry was sent to the chairman of the political science department at each of these institutions. Of the 31 chairmen replying, 14 specifically stated that they had awarded degrees and several replies were unclear. Additional A.B.'s reported numbered 138, A.M.'s 14, and Ph.D.'s 5 It appears probable that of the 81 institutions from which no reply was received, there were some which also awarded degrees in political science. Presumably similar omissions have occurred in the field of geography.

Catholic, Cincinnati, Colorado, Colorado State College of Education, Columbia, Denver, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Miami (Ohio), Michigan State, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Oberlin, Oklahoma A. and M., Oregon, George Peabody, Southern Methodist, Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College, Syracuse, Tennessee, University of Oklahoma, Virginia, George Washington, Wayne, Western Illinois State Teachers College, and Western Reserve.[3]

TABLE I

INSTITUTIONS REPORTING THE AWARD OF DOCTOR'S DEGREES IN GEOGRAPHY, 1947-50, BY NUMBER

Clark	20
Chicago	16
Michigan	9
California	5
Yale	5
University of Iowa	4
Maryland	4
North Carolina	4
Wisconsin	4
Indiana	3
Johns Hopkins	2
University of Washington	2
Nebraska	1
North Dakota	1
Northwestern (data incomplete)	1
Ohio	1
Pennsylvania State	1
Pittsburgh	1
Total	85

In considering the supply of geographers, one must also take into account the overlapping of disciplines. A social scientist in almost any field, especially interested in natural resources, might acquire some preparation for a career as a geographer, and students in such curricula as that at the Graduate School of Business of Columbia University in Economic Geography may receive the equivalent of a master's training in geography.[4] It is probable that a number of geologists also receive the equivalent of a master's or doctor's training in geography. In other words, the number of degrees awarded in a field is only a rough index of the total supply.

[3] Due to limitations in source materials, the authors were unable to secure detailed information about some institutions. For example, the Illinois State Normal University is nationally known for its training of undergraduate geographers and was the first institution under the jurisdiction of the Teachers College Board of Illinois to grant a Master's Degree in geography (Editor's note).

[4] *Announcements for 1950-51*, p. 46-8.

THE POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE STRAITS OF GIBRALTAR

NORMAN J. G. POUNDS
Indiana University

The most southerly point of Spain reaches to within 10 miles of the coast of Africa. The brown hills of Morocco can be seen across the Strait, framed between the blue sky and the deeper blue of the sea. They drop steeply to the water's edge. To the east is a short, low peninsula, on which is the town of Ceuta, and to the west the town of Tangier spreads over the low hills beyond its sandy bay (Fig. 1). On the Spanish side of the Straits the Betic mountains swing around to the south, diminishing in height until they end in the low cliffs of Cape Marroqui. Northwest of the headland a flat coast stretches away to Cape Trafalgar, a low and inconspicuous promontory, more widely known in history than in Geography. Here, close to the western side of the Cape, is the small walled town of Tarifa, the most southerly in Spain and in Europe. To the east, opposite Ceuta, is the Rock of Gibraltar, lying back a little from the Strait.

Gibraltar is only two and three-quarters miles long and at most

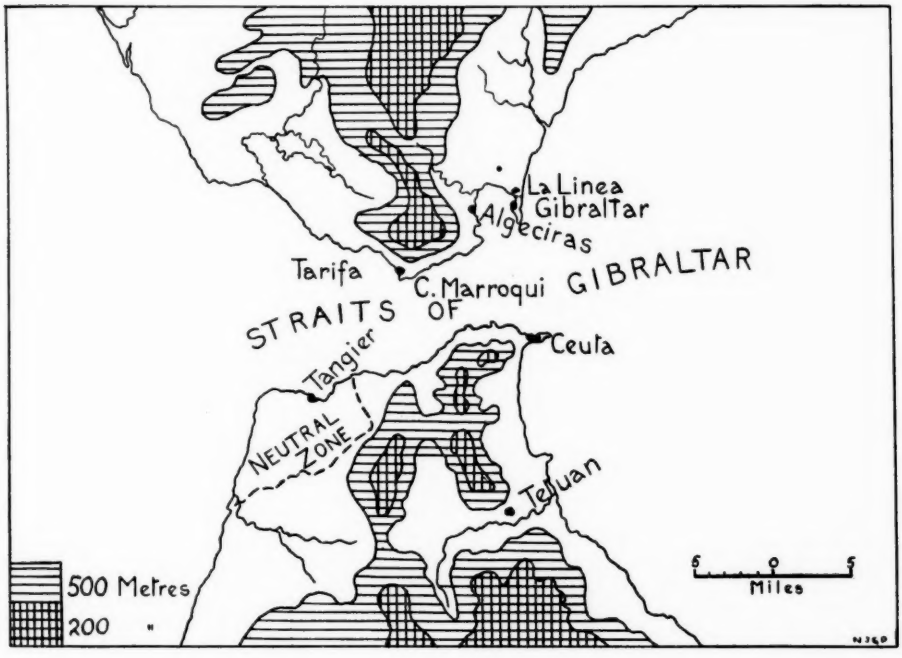

FIG. 1.

three-fourths of a mile wide. Its crest rises from Europa Point, the southern tip, to the towering cliff at its northern end, that looks out over the flat "neutral ground" to the Spanish hills beyond. Its eastern side is steep and exposed to heavy seas whenever a strong wind blows in from the Mediterranean. But east of the Rock is the Bay of Algeciras, with deep water and protection against all quarters except the south. The little town of Gibraltar looks out over the bay, where warships and merchant-men lie at anchor, to the yet smaller and more sleepy Spanish town of Algeciras.

The Straits of Gibraltar are a crossing of routes. The sea route from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean, from Northwest Europe and the Atlantic Seaboard ports to the Middle East and Far East, goes *thru* the Strait. The easiest crossing from Africa to Europe and *vice versa* is *across* the Strait. The Moors invaded Western Europe by this route in the eighth century. The Vandals had previously crossed the Straits from Europe to Africa. One of the earliest overseas footholds of modern Europe was the town of Ceuta, captured by the Portuguese in 1415. A few years later Tangier was occupied, and, altho both were subsequently lost, Spain, Portugal and the nations of Northwestern Europe have never ceased to be interested in this area.

The route from east to west thru the Strait was used in ancient times. The Phoenicans used it on their voyages to "Tarshish" and, according to Herodotus, made the first settlement at *Tingis* (Tangier).

These two lines of movement, from Europe to Africa and from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean, have continued until today to be significant and to influence the political geography of the Straits. It might, in fact, be said that their political geography hinges upon the desire of the great powers to ensure a free and uninterrupted movement by water from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean. The shores of the Straits are divided between four political units: Spain, the Spanish dependency of Morocco, the British crown colony of Gibraltar and the International Zone of Tangier.

Morocco

Spain's interest in Morocco derives from the sixteenth century, when, after the final collapse of Moorish resistence in Southern Spain, the Spaniards began to interest themselves in the land beyond the Straits. It has been argued that the close ties of language, religion and culture between the Moors of Spain and the Berber people of Morocco made it necessary for her to occupy the opposite

shore. But the tribesmen have been unruly subjects. The Spanish Zone of Morocco was claimed in 1912 and occupied during the following years, but it has been of little value to Spain. In 1921 the revolt of the tribesmen under Abdel Krim involved Spain in military defeats which contributed to the overthrow of the monarchy at home. The Spanish Zone of Morocco is a sparsely populated and mountainous territory, contributing little to Spain's economy.

Ceuta, the only town of the Spanish Zone which lies in the Straits, has a poor harbor. It is backed by high mountains and was formerly thought to have little value. A greater importance is attached to Tangier.

TANGIER

The town was occupied in 1471 by the Portuguese who for almost two centuries maintained a rather precarious hold on it. Not only did it serve as a commercial station, trading with its Moroccan hinterland; but it was in a position to control the Straits and to deny ingress and egress to the ships of hostile powers. In 1657 the English General Monck wrote that "there is a castle in the Streight's mouth which the Portugals have called Tangar, on Barbary Side, and which, if they would part with it withal, it would be very useful to us, . . . An hundred men will keep the castle and half a dozen Frigates there would stop the whole trade in the Streights to such as shall be enemies to us." Four years later England acquired Tangier as part of the dowry brought by the new queen, a Portuguese princess, to her husband, Charles II. Charles himself characterized the new possession as "a jewell of immense value in the royal diadem." The English had also inherited the difficulties of the Portuguese. The Berber tribesmen exerted a constant pressure; English losses were heavy and in 1684 an impecunious and improvident king abandoned this "jewel" to the Moors. Twenty years later a British naval force occupied the Rock of Gibraltar.

It became a pillar of British policy to retain Tangier in the hands of a weak and preferably Berber power. The French and Spanish were warned off; help and advice were given to the Berbers to enable them to repel attack. A strong power ensconced in Tangier would neutralize for the English the advantage of possessing Gibraltar. "Tangier must remain in the hands of a neutral Power like Morocco," wrote Lord Nelson, "or England must own it," and an English diplomat reported that "it would never do for us that

France should hold the straits, the gate of commerce, the passage to India and the East."

It was impossible indefinitely to exclude the French and the Spanish from interesting themselves in Morocco. In the early years of the present century they extended their political control but Great Britain, which gave a grudging acknowledgment to these gains, always maintained the "special character" of Tangier. This "special character" which expresses itself today in an international administration, derives mainly from the sensitivity of England regarding the Straits. The *raison d'être* of the International Zone is Britain's insistence on its neutralization.

The "special character" was recognised in an international treaty in 1912, and the Zone was defined in 1923. Tangier had long been the residence of the group of diplomats accredited to the Sultan of Morocco. This body took on itself the task of sanitary regulation in the town. Its powers were extended by ordinance of the Sultan, but it was always the body of Europeans who provided the skill and the initiative. It took charge of the lighthouse, built on Cape Spartel in 1864, and it operated a rudimentary postal service from Tangier, which served much of the hinterland. Tangier was acquiring a "special character," over and above that given it by the policy of Great Britain.

The International Zone is a small area of only 225 square miles. Its population of about 100,000 lives mostly in the city of Tangier. This is a congested oriental city, with, in its older quarter, narrow streets, mosques and colorful if insalubrious markets. No particular industry is dominant; a considerable proportion of the population is engaged in making leather goods and articles bought by the tourist. Tangier has no import duties or currency control, a condition which favors the conduct here of monetary transactions which would be illegal in European countries. It is rumored that smuggling is not unknown between Tangier and the opposite European coast.

An agreement of 1923 between Great Britain, France, Spain and Italy provided for the administration. The sovereignty of the Sultan of Morocco was not impaired, but he is represented in the Zone by the *Mendoub,* who presides over a mixed Legislative Assembly, a majority of which is nominated by the European powers. Executive power rests in the hands of a committee of Consuls of Britain, France and Spain. These were joined for a time by a representative of Italy, but a more recent request by the U.S.S.R. to be allowed to participate has not been well received. Tangier was occupied by

Spanish forces in June, 1940, but returned to its former international regime in October, 1945.

GIBRALTAR

Tangier has a negative role: its function is to do nothing in the political field. Gibraltar, on the other hand, is not bound by treaties. It is, in a small way, a naval and air base. When the British took Gibraltar in 1704 it had only a trifling population. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries a town grew up along the western side of the rock, where the slope is least steep. Barracks were built for the British troops, and Spaniards came in and settled, tempted by the opportunities for trade and employment offered by the garrison.

Today the civil population is about 22,500. The size of military and naval personnel varies with the exigencies of political and military circumstance. In December, 1947, it was about 5,000. The civil population is dependent on the military; if the garrison were withdrawn and the naval station closed, the Spanish population would melt away across the border into Spain. The Rock has no agricultural land beyond a park and a few small gardens. Perishable food is brought in from Spain, and other foodstuffs come from overseas. A stretch of low sandy land joins Gibraltar with Spain. Here, stretching from the Bay of Algeciras to the Mediterranean is the "neutral zone." Rusting barbed wire is strewn thru its sparse xerophytic vegetation; concrete "pill-boxes" face one another across it. The Spanish residents in La Linea walk across to work in Gibraltar and walk home at night carrying loaves of white bread, baked from Australian or Canadian flour, to eke out the slender food supply in their villages of San Roqua or La Linea.

Gibraltar is a smart, busy town, workmanlike and efficient, like other garrison towns. The problems that have faced its growth have been serious. Rainfall on the Rock is on average 34.4 inches a year, but the summer is long and dry. It is necessary to conserve all the water that is possible. Reservoirs have been excavated within the limestone rock, and parts of the surface have been concreted and used for water catchment. Even so, water becomes a precious commodity towards the end of summer.

Nowhere on the Rock is there land flat enough to form an adequate airfield. This shortcoming has led to discussions of the strategic value of the Rock under conditions of modern warfare. It has even been suggested that Spain might exchange it for Ceuta, where there is more level land. An air strip, however, has been

laid out between the northern face of the Rock and the Spanish border and has been lengthened westwards into the Bay. It is not really long enough. The winds are often treacherous, and the passenger circling over the Rock and coming in to land might well wonder how the plane can get down onto so small an area.

Conclusion

The political importance of the Straits has combined with the policy of Great Britain to separate off the territorial units of Gibraltar and Tangier. "The unique distinctive idea under which 'the shores of the Straits' are organized" has been the strategic need of Great Britain, the dominant naval and commercial power of Western Europe, to control this area or to keep it in the possession of a weak power. The geographer may profitably inquire whether either Gibraltar or Tangier can effectively control the Straits and whether no other point has a comparable advantage. The Straits are so narrow that heavy guns mounted on any part of either shore could effectively cover the intervening sea. The Straits are narrowest south of Tarifa, and this area might be thought to have a greater significance. Cape Marroqui and nearby Tarifa, however, are not easily defensible on the landward side. The same is true of Ceuta. Gibraltar was, particularly in the conditions of the eighteenth century, when it was captured, eminently defensible. The strength of its position may have been reduced in the conditions of modern warfare, but it nevertheless remains very great. Most of the southern shore of the Straits is over-looked by high ground in the interior of Morocco, and thus suffers from the same disadvantage as the northern shore. The coast, furthermore, is steep and nowhere offers any sort of anchorage except the Bay of Tangier.

The exclusion from Spanish control of the two areas of greatest strategic value has not been accepted in Spain as inevitable. Evidence lies in Franco's occupation of Tangier from 1940 to 1945. He can point also to the predominantly Spanish language and origin of most of the people of Gibraltar, and many Spaniards during this last war looked forward in the words of one of their leaders, to its restoration "once more to the mother country." But it remained in British possession. It is worth noting that Gibraltar has actually been far longer in English hands than it ever was in Spanish. This issue is not closed, but will only become a major problem if Spain receives powerful backing from her continental neighbors, and that does not seem probable, at least in the near future.

NATIONAL COUNCIL AT WORK

INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL

By the Work of Project Committees. In addition to Administrative Committees described on this page in the March issue of the JOURNAL, the National Council has, at present, 10 committees at work on different kinds of projects. Four of the so-called Project Committees are in the process of compiling annotated bibliographies concerning the use of still pictures, motion pictures, maps, and supplementary reading materials. The personnel of these committees is as follows:

1. *Committee on Still Pictures:* Mary Jo Read, Chairman, Byron Barton, Mary Beecher, Cyril Stout.

2. *Committee on Motion Pictures:* Lyda Belthuis, Chairman, Mary Louise Jones, John L. Banks, Jr., Robert L. Hamm, and Ruth Knight.

3. *Committee on Maps:* Margaret Chew, Chairman, George Corfield, and Carl Mapes.

4. *Committee on Supplementary Reading Materials:* Helen Mixter, Chairman, Emily Baker, Harriet Lee, Zita Mueller, Eleanor Gover, Ida Lautz, Adelaide Blouch, Anna Moengen, and Mary L. Fagg.

The final report of the *Committee on Still Pictures* is due in July, 1952, and will be made available for distribution as a bonus publication in 1953. The reports of the other three committees are due in 1953, 1954, and 1955, respectively, and will likewise be made available as bonus publications.

Four other committees are involved in investigations. These Project Committees are:

5. *Committee on the Investigation of Geographic Education in Secondary Schools:* Lillian Worley, Chairman, Halene H. Visher, Ina Robertson, Frances Hanson, and Flora Dutcher.

6. *Committee on the Investigation of Research in Geographic Education:* Herbert Gross, Chairman, V. Calvon McKim, Adah Flemington, Eleanor Wiegend, and Carol Brumby.

7. *Committee on the Investigation of Teacher Preparation and Certification:* Byron Barton, Chairman, John Reith, Ralph Olson, Olive C. Fish, and Annice Elkins.

8. *Committee on the Investigation of the Use of Television in the Teaching of Geography:* Mildred Danklefsen, Chairman, Eleanor Hanlon, and Ruth Baugh.

The report of the last committee is due in July, 1953. Miss Worley's report on Geographic Education in Secondary Schools will be read at the August, 1952, meeting of the National Council in Washington, D. C. That on Teacher Preparation is scheduled for 1954, and Dr. Gross' committee will report in 1955. The reports of these various investigative committees will probably appear as articles in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY.

Two other committees have jobs of a "productive" nature:

9. *Committee on the Production and Utilization of Color Slides:* Fred E. Dohrs, Chairman, Elizabeth Eiselen, and Robert Goodman.

10. *Committee on the Preparation of a Standardized Test or Tests in Geography:* Viola Bohn, Chairman, John Astuno, A. C. Carthew, Berenice Caspar, R. Funderbunk, Lynn Halverson, Cordelia Harbeson, Homer Knight, Adelle Zigrang.

Thru the work of these Project Committees, the National Council hopes to increase its effectiveness and thereby achieve its objectives.

All members are reminded that they have been given two assignments this year:

1. To get a new member. Late in April you will receive a spring letter from your new secretary, Miss Ina C. Robertson, Valley City, North Dakota. In this will be a government postal card on which you are to indicate the name of the new member that you have obtained in 1952. The card is to be returned to Miss Robertson and after July 1, you will be mailed a button to wear at the annual meeting in August.

2. Every member is to keep Wednesday and Thursday, August 6 and 7, free in order to attend the annual meeting in Washington, D. C. You will also want to plan to stay in Washington, D. C., for the meetings of the International Geographical Congress from August 8-15. These I.G.U. meetings will have $15 registration fee. Attendance at National Council meetings do not require a registration fee, however, and you will have the opportunity to meet many foreign geographers who are planning to arrive in Washington in time to attend the Council meetings before the I.G.U. meetings begin.

CLYDE F. KOHN
President

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

A. B. Guthrie, Jr. **The Big Sky.** William Sloane Associates, Inc., New York, 1950. 340 pages, illustrations by Jacob Landau. $2.75.

This is an edition of an historical novel specially revised by the author for young readers. It is the story of a Kentucky boy, Boone Caudill, and of mountain men who struck out to follow rivers and Indian trails across the Great Plains and western mountains. They were the traders and trappers who preceded the settlers in covered wagons. Parts One and Two take place in 1830 when, at the age of 17, Boone leaves his Kentucky home and after many difficulties reaches St. Louis. There he joins a party going by boat up the Missouri River. In Part Three the author tells of the hardships encountered with Indians and with cold in the year 1837; in Part Four he describes the disasters met in 1842-1843 while exploring difficult trails across mountains to lands draining to the Pacific and predicts tremendous changes soon to come.

There are good descriptions of the various natural landscapes with little evidence of the Indian occupance. The life of a rough type of man who for one reason or another ventured forth into these little known areas is realistically portrayed. The language used is probably typical of many frontiersmen, but it is questionable whether the reality it may add justifies its use in a book recommended for adolescent readers.

The frontispiece map is helpful to the reader in following the journey. Many of the black and white sketches are weird and depict mainly the horrors of the experiences and do not aid much in visualizing the landscapes.

The book has a place in high-school libraries and probably would add to appreciation by older adolescents of this early period in the historical geography of western United States.

Kent State University EDNA E. EISEN

Norman Carls, Frank E. Sorenson, Margery D. Howarth. **Neighbors in Latin America.** The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1951. vii and 260 pages, 16 colored plates of physical political maps in the Atlas section.

This book is one of Our Neighbors Geography Series and is designed for the junior high pupil. Attitudes of respect for people living in other places is initiated thru a brief presentation of UNESCO and other United Nations Organizations, and such Inter-American developments as the Pan-American Union. An understanding of people living in different places, communication, transportation, and the commodities that flow between Latin American countries and other places in the world is presented thru descriptions, snatches of conversation, maps, graphs, charts, comparisons, profiles, and photographs of people engaged in human activities.

Photographs of some of the stamps from the Latin American countries at the beginning of each unit are used as a motivating device for both geographical and historical facts connected with each country. The nine units cover all of the countries of Central and South America by countries, and the West Indies either by islands or groups of islands.

Each unit carries a map showing Routes of Travel and Trade by Air, Land, and Sea. A simple legend and symbols on the map show the location of cities where trade and travel are focused. These maps and the Human Use Maps with temperature and rainfall graphs accompanying each unit can be supplemented with selected photographs to give the pupils an idea of the real landscape and how the people use their landscape to make a living. The feel of temperature would be more meaningful for the junior high pupil if the highest and lowest temperatures for each month had been

given rather than showing only the January and July averages. It would also be more useful to have the distribution of rainfall given by months rather than showing the total annual amount. The value of such generalized maps as the one found on page 222 would be increased if a numerical value for each symbol were indicated in the legend.

The many graphs in this book can be used to advantage as problem raising instruments and for motivating questions that pupils will want to answer. Some of the most useful graphs include those showing the per cent of children attending schools and those not attending schools in each country, the charts of comparison that show what a person in each country eats each week as compared with what a person in the United States consumes in a week, and crop land comparisons.

The authors have carefully indicated the differences in the vertical and horizontal scales, and by stating the vertical exaggeration on each of the profiles showing elevation made it easy for the pupil to experiment with the construction of a profile where both elevation and distance are on the same scale.

The readability of the textual material with the easily read graphs, maps, and photographs makes this a useful and timely supplementary book for the geography laboratory.

MAMIE L. ANDERZHON

Oak Park, Illinois

Ellsworth Huntington and Earl B. Shaw. **Principles of Human Geography** (sixth edition). John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1951. xvii and 805 pages, maps, illustrations, index. **$6.50.**

The philosophy and success of this widely used text remains essentially the same. The leaning toward environmental determinism is found in such phrases as ". . . the level topography, the climate, and the absence of other resources *cause* (reviewer's italics) agriculture to be the great occupation" (page 14). There are places, however, where a change in emphasis is noted. "The environment may offer few or many choices for utilizing natural resources. But man makes the final choice . . ." (footnote, page 29) may be quoted in illustration. Some will regret that this change was not effected thruout the text.

Emphasis on principles and problems remains a strong point. Each chapter presents one or more problems with suggested solutions. This approach makes the book very teachable, allowing the student to organize the material in a logical manner instead of memorizing a mass of isolated or poorly integrated facts.

Notable additions have been made to the text. Population distribution in the Virgin Islands is used in chapter 2 as an example of a second possible approach to the study of humen geography, supplementing the Kirgiz study. The three chapters on countries of the world are shifted to form a concluding unit and a section, "Man's Relation to Landforms," occupies their former position. Treatment of "Man's Regional Relationships" remains spotty. The cool forest lands and the temperate grasslands are badly neglected.

Perhaps the most pronounced improvement is the inclusion of numerous new maps and illustrations. These include locational maps, diagrams, relief maps and photographs. The series of relief maps in plastic shading, however, is broken by showing elevation and relief regions of Australia and Asia.

The qualities which make this book so teachable have been kept and improved. Teachers who received the earlier editions with favor will be even more pleased with this new revision.

Indiana University JAMES W. TAYLOR

Demographic Yearbook, 1949-50. United Nations 1951 XIII 1, New York, 1950. 558 pages, 7 maps, 39 tables. $6.

Kingsley Davis. **The Population of India and Pakistan.** Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1951. 253 pages, 22 maps, 94 tables, 55 charts. $7.50.

One of the striking anomalies of the world population picture is that while modern techniques are increasing the material standards of some of the world's people, yet population pressure and poverty are more likely for most of them. This great contrast in population prospects, resulting largely from differences in education, technical skills, social organization and political structure, significantly underlines most of the world's population difficulties.

Everyone agrees on the great need for doing something about population problems. The danger exists, however, that action will not be preceded by careful study and therefore do more harm than good. There is clearly a need for knowledge of population facts and beyond this an understanding of relationships between the population and cultural characteristics of different peoples.

Both the United Nations *Demographic Yearbook* and the Davis study of population in India and Pakistan contribute effectively to the spread of such knowledge. The *Yearbook* includes data for 1948 and 1949 and adequately satisfies the demand for the best possible data and estimates of population characteristics on a world basis. Any compilation of international data involves limitations of comparability based on differences in concepts and definitions. Teachers in general and population students in particular owe a great debt to the *Yearbook* for its constant attempts to standardize material and to make limitations apparent.

The *Yearbook* consists of two parts. The first includes tables on standard material such as total population, age and sex composition, deaths and death rates, economic characteristics and international migration. This section is repeated from year to year with revisions and additions. The second part of the *Yearbook* is devoted to a special topic or field of interest, to be repeated at five year intervals. The subject of emphasis in the present issue is marriage and fertility.

When raw data, such as that presented in the *Yearbook*, is put into its proper geographic setting it can provide an insight into the kinds of population problems that are characteristic of large parts of the earth today. Davis' *The Population of India and Pakistan* is an admirable example of a study that provides such insight. It is the most thoro population analysis yet presented of the Indian subcontinent, a region that, in the author's own words, "affords an opportunity to obtain a better understanding of demographic phenomena in the crowded agricultural regions of the world." The great value of India for such a study is that it has, among comparable areas, the best statistics.

The author's main tasks are (1) the description of present and past growth, including such considerations as size, density, regional distribution and rate of growth; (2) the study of relationships between population and Indian social institutions and (3) the projection of future population trends and their possible consequences.

In carrying out his tasks, Davis points up the two outstanding features of the Indian subcontinent, the poverty of the people and their tremendous numbers. He also provides a valuable insight into the effects of Indian social structure with its differences of caste and religion and of social changes consequent upon urbanization and education. The book concludes with a call for a population policy that would include strategic emigration, a vigorous birth control program and a scheme for rapid industrialization. Davis admits, however, that only the last measure has any chance of being pushed and not for demographic but for nationalistic reasons.

Indiana University R. LOUIS GENTILCORE

Theodore Shabad. **Geography of the USSR, A Regional Survey.** Columbia University Press, New York, 1951. xxxii and 584 pages. 57 maps. **$8.50.**

Shabad's book is a reference volume rather than a textbook.

For the teacher who wishes a brief general summary of the Soviet Union as a whole, Part One, General Survey, presents in 100 pages a survey of the physical setting (location and boundaries, seas and coasts, geologic history, structure and relief, hydrography, climate, soils and vegetation, and mineral resources), the political framework (population, administrative-territorial divisions, and toponymy), and the economic pattern (agriculture, industry, transportation, and commerce). Shabad has learned the knack of good topic sentences which bring out the major point of each of these sections at the very beginning.

Part Two, Regional Survey, with 400 pages, forms the bulk of the book, and its main contribution. Altogether 23 larger regions and 150 smaller political units (oblasts) are discussed in turn. The number of oblasts described is too large to be readily grasped or remembered by teacher or student. Few would care to read straight thru this encyclopedic regional part, yet many will find here a valuable storehouse of data on specific areas.

Shabad has done extensive research in gathering from scattered Soviet sources material about cities, economic activities, political organization, changes in place names, growth in population, and natural conditions in each small political subdivision. The estimates of present population based on an analysis of election district returns, are valuable. The data are up to date, with emphasis on post-war developments.

CHAUNCY D. HARRIS

University of Chicago

W. B. Fisher. **The Middle East—A Physical, Social and Regional Geography.** E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1951. xvii and 514 pages, 95 illustrations. **$5.75.**

This is a timely and valuable text on an area of vital strategic importance, of which there has been no detailed geographic treatment in English. The author is Lecturer at the University of Aberdeen, and writes from first-hand knowledge of the Middle East.

He devotes roughly one-seventh of his text to the physical geography of the area, one-third to its social geography, and one-half to the "regional" description of Iran, Asia Minor, the Tigris-Euphrates Lowlands, the Levant, Arabian peninsula, Egypt and Cyrenaica. The first two parts are to be commended as a concise, objective topical analysis of the varied cultural, economic and political situations and problems of a highly complex area, viewed in the light of their physical and historical background. The topical approach proves less satisfactory in the second half of the book, where the description of each large areal unit is compartmentalized under a number of subject headings. The treatment of agriculture, for example, by commodities rather than regions, makes it difficult to visualize the individual economies of a country's several dissimilar agricultural regions. The most confusing chapter is that on the Levant, which lumps four small but varied countries together in a single topical treatment. The role of Israel as an independent state is not covered because the book went to press in 1948. Less understandable are certain other omissions. One finds little reference, for example, to the smaller cities and towns of the Middle East, or the significance and function of the agricultural village as the focus of most of the area's rural economic and social life.

Despite these shortcomings, Fisher's book should prove a welcome and highly useful tool for the teacher, and the college student able to cope with its numerous geomorphologic terms and occasional anglicisms. Its 95 clearly drawn maps and diagrams are well-coordinated with the text, and both it and they seem reasonably free of errors. They are helpfully supplemented by a wealth of footnote annotations and a selected bibliography.

HENRY S. STERLING

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BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

Effie G. Bathurst and Jane Franseth. **Modern Ways in One- and Two-Teacher Schools.** Bulletin 1951, No. 18, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Washington, D.C. 48 pages, illustrations. 20 cents.

Wilhelmina Hill and Helen K. Mackintosh. **How Children Learn About Human Rights.** Bulletin 1951, No. 9, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Washington, D.C. 16 pages, illustrations. 15 cents.

Clara Egli LeGear. **The Hotchkiss Map Collection.** The Library of Congress, Reference Department, Map Division, Washington, 1951. 67 pages. 60 cents.

Social Studies in Elementary Schools. Education Briefs, Elementary Education Series, No. 29, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1951. 7 pages.

Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth. Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 22, Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 108 pages. 30 cents.

Seerley Reid and Virginia Wilkins. **3434 U. S. Government Films.** Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 21. Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 329 pages. 70 cents.

The Arabian Peninsula: A Selected, Annotated List of Periodicals, Books and Articles in English. Prepared under the direction of the Near East Section, Division of Orientalia, The Library of Congress. Available from Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C. 111 pages. 80 cents.

Iran: A Selected and Annotated Bibliography. Compiled by Hafez F. Farman. Available from Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C. 100 pages. 70 cents.

Manchuria: An Annotated Bibliography. Compiled by Peter A. Berton. Available from Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C. 187 pages. $1.30.

Serial Publications of the Soviet Union, 1939-1951. A Preliminary Checklist. Compiled by Rudolph Smits. Available from Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 316 pages. $1.50.

Otis W. Freeman and H. F. Raup. **Laboratory Exercises to Accompany Essentials of Geography.** McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1951. 134 pages. $1.75.

A Junior High School Looks at UNESCO. U. S. National Commission for UNESCO, Washington, D.C., 1951. 26 pages, illustrations. 15 cents.

Albert G. Ballert. **The Major Ports of the Great Lakes: Tonnages and Principal Traffic in 1948.** (Map) 1951. Copies may be obtained from Albert G. Ballert, 5636 Kenwood Avenue, Chicago 37. 50 cents.

Marston Bates. **Where Winter Never Comes: A Study of Man and Nature in the Tropics.** Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1952. 310 pages, 29 illustrations, references, index. $3.50.

Frank Illingworth. **North of the Circle.** Philosophical Library, New York, 1952. 254 pages, 32 illustrations. $4.75.

Kurt B. Mayer. **The Population of Switzerland.** Columbia University Press, New York, 1952. 336 pages, 9 charts, 4 maps. $5.

U.N.: Demographic Yearbook 1952 XIII I. Columbia University Press, New York, 1952. 608 pages. $7.50.

A. W. Sampson. **Range Management: Principles and Practices.** John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1952. xiv and 570 pages, illustrations, bibliographies, index. $7.50.

Henry Field. **The Anthropology of Iraq: Part II, Number 1, The Northern Jazira.** Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology, Harvard University, Vol. XLVI, No. 1, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1951. 116 pages, 54 figures, 194 tables, index. $6.50.